Food of Fish Collected on Artificial Reefs in the New York Bight and Off Charleston, South Carolina

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Introduction

Artificial reefs have been used for centuries to enhance or concentrate populations of aquatic organisms. The principle behind their use is that of providing or increasing one or more environmental factors, e.g., cover, food, or spawning grounds, which limit the potential development of these populations. In recent years U.S. use of artificial reefs has been mostly in recreational fishery management and has increased somewhat proportionately with the increase in fishing pressure and the decrease in coastal and estuarine environmental quality. With rising fuel costs, attempts to enhance fishing near to ports will surely include the construction of more artificial reefs.

Despite their use for several decades in the United States (Steimle and Stone, 1973), major questions about the de-

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pendency of fish on artificial reefs persist. With the probable increase in artificial reef construction, some clearer insights into the function of artificial reefs must be gained, to make intelligent and optimum use of this management tool. A question that has not received enough attention concerns the role of artificial reefs in increasing or improving the quality or quantity of forage for fish. Besides the obvious cover provided by artificial reefs, the hard surfaces of reef material are colonized by an encrusting community. If the fish inhabiting artificial reefs depend heavily on this community for food, this would further define the function of the reef in attracting and maintaining fish populations and would assist artificial reef designers to develop more effective and productive structures.

This study was conducted to address the question of whether artificial reefs are, or can be, important providers of forage for fish. The study was part of a more extensive investigation by the former Bureau of Sport Fisheries (now National Marine Fisheries Service, NOAA) on the construction, utilization, and effectiveness of artificial reefs (Parker et al., 1974; Stone et al., 1974).

Methods

The 309 stomachs from 11 species of fish (Table 1) used in this study were

Table 1.—Summary of fish samples obtained for this study (names of fishes from AFS, 1970.)

	Species	Number of samples obtained at:							
Common name	Scientific name	Atlantic Beach, N.Y.	Monmouth Beach, N.J.	Charleston, S.C					
Atlantic cod	Gadus morhua	32							
Red hake	Urophycis chuss	15	16						
Rock sea bass	Centropristis philadelphica			8					
Black sea bass	Centropristis striata		7	52					
Sheepshead	Archisargus probatocephalus			3					
Pinfish	Lagodon rhomboides			3					
Scup	Stenotomus chrysops			3					
Northern kingfish	Menticirrhus saxatilis	23							
Tautog	Tautoga onitis	43	14						
Cunner	Tautogolabrus adspersus	39	48						
Winter flounder	Pseudopleuronectes american	nus	3						

ABSTRACT—The construction of artificial reefs is a popular means of countering increasing recreational fishing pressure. Despite their popularity, many questions persist about their function and effectiveness as a management tool. This paper discusses

the role of the epifauna, which develops on artificial reefs and most other submerged hard surfaces, in providing food for the fish population found on or near artificial reefs. The stomach contents of 309 specimens of 13 species of fish, collected by spear or hook and line at three artificial reef sites, were examined to better define their trophic dependence on reef epifauna. Although most examined species did not appear to be highly dependent on the reef epifauna for food, there is a need for further study.

Table 2.-Locations and characteristics of the three artificial reefs where fish were collected.

Reef site	Location	Date established	Depth(m)	Characteristics
Charleston	13 km east of Keawah Island, S C	October 1967	15	70 car bodies placed on a sandy bottom
Monmouth Beach	3 25 km east of Monmouth Beach, N J	August 1966	15-18	16 car bodies, 20 pyramidal 12-tire units, and 1,100 single tire units on a sandy bottom. Rounded outcroppings of rock with patches of sand, shell, and cobbles were nearby.
Atlantic Beach	5 5 km south of Atlantic Beach, N Y	July 1967	20	404 car bodies, one metal and one wooden barge placed on a sandy bottom.

Table 3.—Food of fish collected on the Charleston. S.C., artificial reef, presented as percent of total volume of stomach (S) and intestine (I) contents.

	Predator											
	Black sea bass		Rock sea bass		Scup		Pinfish		Sheepshead			
Prey	S	1	S	1	S	1	S	1	S	1		
Chaetognatha					50 0							
Mollusca (unidentified)	< 1.0											
Solen sp	6 1	3.9	29	4 1				16 7				
Polychaeta	<10	5.4										
Crustacea												
Cirripedia	5.0	10 1							20.5	27 5		
Cumacea	< 1.0	< 10				93.3	333	208				
Isopoda	< 10	< 10										
Amphipoda	10.9	16 4		27			66 7	62 5	4.0	86		
Decapoda (unidentified)	3.4	72		425								
Brachyura (unidentified)	12.4	13.5	7.7	13 7	500							
Cancridae	< 10	2.5	29									
Portunidae	37.4	5.2	36 5	55								
Xanthidae	<10	2.3	24 0	5 5								
Tunicata	<10	12							67.6	21.4		
Pisces	117		26 0									
Unidentified organic matter	4 9	38 6		26.0		6.7			6.8	42.0		
Number of predators examined	52		8	3	3		(3	3	3		
Number of empty guts (S · I)	2		(1		0		Č			
Mean predator fork length (cm)	13			5 6	8.9		10.2			9.5		

collected at three artificial reef sites: Off Charleston, S.C.; Monmouth Beach, N.J., and Atlantic Beach, N.Y. The characteristics of each site are presented in Table 2. Fish samples were collected by diver-held spear at the Charleston and Monmouth Beach sites, and by hook and line at the Atlantic Beach site. These two methods were used to overcome the difficulty in obtaining samples of reef fish by more standard methods (i.e., trawling and bottom longlines) because of the problem of hanging up. Hand spearing also allows the collector to observe whether any food material is regurgitated. Regurgitation, because of rough handling (i.e., within the cod end of a trawl), could be a very important source of error as well as in the use of

baited hooks on longlines in food habits studies. The disadvantage of the chosen sampling methods is that they produce small quantities of samples per unit effort than other methods, thus the relatively small number of samples examined in this study. Collections were made primarily between late spring and early fall (except for several winter collections at the Atlantic Beach site) from 1967 through 1970. The species and number of individuals per species were determined by what was actually caught by hook and line or speared by the divers, who tried to select their targets at random and to be representative of dominant species present. Stomachs and intestines were quickly removed from all fish samples and preserved in 10 percent buffered formalin. In the laboratory, the total volume of the contents as well as the volume of each identifiable food item were determined for the contents of the gut (stomach and intestine) of each fish.

Results and Discussion

The results of the gut content analysis of the five most commonly sampled species for each study site are presented in Tables 3-5. These results provide little concrete evidence to support the hypothesis that most fish species found in, on, or adjacent to temperate artificial reefs are present because of a high dependence on the reef-associated fauna or flora for food. Faunal groups or species that are, without a doubt, closely associated with reefs, e.g., hydroids, mussels

Table 4. — Food of fish collected on the Monmouth Beach, N.J., artificial reef, presented as percent of total volume of stomach (S) and intestine (I) contents.

	Predator										
	Red hake		Black sea bass		Tautog		Cunner		Winter flounde		
Prey	S	1	S	1	S	1	S	[S	1	
Hydrozoa	10				7 3	22	80	1 4			
Bryozoa						27	5.9				
Mollusca (unidentified)		43					10				
Mytilus edulis					9 1	35 1	315	49 5			
Cephalopoda			7 7								
Polychaeta (unidentified)					4.7		9.6	< 1.0	16.7	2.7	
Nereis sp	29	24							83 3	8.1	
Crustacea											
Cirripedia								< 1.0			
Copepoda							10	2.8			
Cumacea							1.3	< 10			
Amphipoda	< 10	1.0					2.0	1.0			
Mysidacea							10	1.4			
Decapoda (unidentified)		22 7	615				1.0	8.8			
Caridea (unidentified)	< 10	53					1 0	6.5			
Crangon septemspinosus	11 1						26	3 7			
Brachyura (unidentified)	26	163			3.6		18 2	3.2			
Cancer spp	32 7	1.1	30 8	11 1	27.5	54.1	6.6				
Echinodermata											
Echinarachnius parma					37.8			32			
Tunicata	44 3	1.1									
Pisces	35						40	19			
Unidentified organic matter	16	47 1		88 9	100	59	123	14.8		89.2	
Number of predators examined	16	3	7		14	1	48	3	3		
Number of empty guts (S - I)	2		3		(11		C		
Mean predator fork length (cm)	33		21			3.0		5.8	23		

(Mytilus), barnacles (cirripedia), and possibly tunicates, occurred in the guts of most species examined but only exceeded 25 percent of total stomach or intestine volume in three species: Tautog, cunner, and sheepshead. Barnacles comprised 37 percent of the total intestinal volume of Atlantic Beach tautog, while Mytilus comprised 35 percent of the intestinal volume of Monmouth Beach tautog. Mytilus also comprised over 40 percent of cunner intestinal volume at both Atlantic Beach and Monmouth Beach sites. However, tautog stomach contents, reflecting more recent feeding, indicate that *Cancer* crabs and sand dollars, Echinarachnius parma, were as or more commonly selected. Also, the stomachs of cunner contained both Mytilus and Crangon septemspinosus, the sand shrimp (a sandy sediment inhabitant), as major constituents. The separation of stomach and intestine in the cunner may be a moot question as Chao (1973) points out. The few sheepshead examined at the Charleston site showed the highest reef dependence, assuming the tunicates were the encrusting type, with most (88 percent) of the stomach and half (49 percent) of the intestinal volume comprised of barnacles and tunicates.

Full identification of most of the items found in the fish guts was impossible or impractical (tediously comparing microscopic fragments to a type set of many possible items). Thus, there is a good chance that some of the other material found in the guts could have been other species also closely associated with the reef's encrusting or epifaunal invertebrate community, e.g., the Xanthid crabs in the diets of rock sea bass at the Charleston site or the amphipods preyed upon by northern kingfish at the Atlantic Beach site. This could possibly increase our assessment of reef dependence, but we can only speculate at this point.

On the other hand, the large amount of identifiable material most probably

consumed on the adjacent, nonreef sediments made apparent the opportunistic nature of most fish collected in the study. These nonreef food items, including chaetognaths, the razor clam (Solen), cumacea, portunid crabs, nerid polychaetes, Crangon shrimp, and sand dollars, E. parma, comprised major portions of the diets of most of the fish examined. Other important diet items, e.g., Cancer crabs and fish, could have potentially been preyed upon on or off the reef habitat and thus cannot provide any insight into the forage function of artificial reefs.

Other studies which have examined the food habits of the species in our study indicate similar results. For example, Chao (1973) and Shumway and Stickney (1975) indicated that barnacles (Balanus) and Mytilus were generally the dominant prey of cunner in southern New England waters. Olla et al. (1975) report Mytilus to be the most frequently occurring food in the digestive tract of

Table 5.—Food of fish collected on the Atlantic Beach, N.Y., artificial reef, presented as percent of total volume of stomach (S) and intestine (I) contents.

	Predator											
	Atlantic cod		Red	Red hake		Northern kingfish			Cunner			
Prey	S	1	S	I	S	1	S	ľ	S	1		
Hydrozoa							1 0		5 7	3 3		
Gastropoda Bivalvia (unidentified)	23						10	2.1	2.5			
	10							1911				
Mytilus edulis Solen sp.		<1.0					3 4		16 5 2 9	42 9		
Polychaeta (unidentified)		67	10		17 1	11.6	10		29			
	0.0				10.5							
Nereis sp.	3.9	<1.0			46 5	115						
Flabelligeridae	10		15				10					
Polynoidae					1.2	43						
Glyceridae Crustacea					2 4	4 3						
Cirripedia							10	37.2				
Amphipoda		<1.0			15.3	23 2	1.0		1.0	200 0		
Mysidacea			10	4 1			1 0		25	1.1		
Decapoda (unidentified)			10	4 1			10					
Homarus americanus	13											
Caridae (unidentified)	< 1.0	2.0	1 0	3.3								
Crangon septemspinosus	5.7	<10	93.3	30.8	2 7				39 0	37 4		
Pandalus sp.									10	2.2		
Anomura	19											
Brachyura	10	24 4		43			67	23 4	24 1	4 4		
Cancer sp	55.8	8.0	2 7		7 3		78 2		1.0	4.4		
Pisces	27.7	<1.0	10						16			
Unidentified organic matter		56 4	10	57 5	7 3	49 3	86	37 2	3.2	4 4		
Number of predators examined	32)	15	,	23	3	43	ŧ.	39	à		
Number of predators examined Number of empty guts (S + I)		2	10		(11		5			
Mean predator fork length (cm)	59	9.5	35	5.6	25	5 1	29	9 1	19	9.3		

tautog in their Long Island, N.Y., study. Bigelow and Schroeder (1953) and Kendall (1977) reported that black sea bass were opportunistic benthic omnivores, with the adults subsisting chiefly on decapod crustacea, fish, and some mollusks. The classification "opportunistic benthic omnivore" also generally fits the remaining species in this study and agrees with other food habit reports in the literature, e.g., Bigelow and Schroeder (1953).

In conclusion, this study suggests that few fish species found around Atlantic temperate artificial reefs during the study period are obligated for sustenance to the encrusting or attached epifaunal forage species that develop on the hard surfaces of artificial reef habitats. Other artificial reef studies in temperate or warmer waters (Randall, 1961; Russell, 1975) also suggest that, generally, reefdependent food resources may be less important in attracting and accommodating fish populations than shelter or other behavioral requirements provided by the reef structure. Olla et al. (1975) indicate that even for the tautog, which preys primarily on mussels commonly found attached to hard surfaces such as artificial reefs, the necessity for shelter may be the limiting factor in its population size.

The results of this study are far from

conclusive. Additional studies should be designed that would also examine factors such as the quantity of forage available on artificial reefs compared to that of the adjacent bottom, or the food habits of juvenile fishes collected on reefs. This type of information is essential in designing and planning effective artificial reefs and making them a more useful fishery management tool.

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